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ABSTRACT

In this collection of annotated references on the subject of classroom management, preference was given to primary research studies or articles about such research, and, with the exception of a few fundamental articles, is limited to studies published in the last decade. Classroom management is defined as the maintenance of on-task behavior or the discouragement of off-task behavior in the normal classroom. A brief presentation is given of commonalities that emerged in reviewing these references. The following generalities about effective classroom management appeared: (1) smooth transitions from one activity to another; (2) establishment of routine daily tasks; (3) adherence to fair and reasonable rules; (4) clearly stated behavioral expectations; (5) effective monitoring of student behavior; (6) timely and appropriate reaction to disruptions; (7) routines, rules, and procedures established in the first weeks of school; and (8) authoritative, firm control paired with warmth and genuine concern for the well-being of the students. This bibliography is divided into sections on Conceptual and Organizational Studies, Research Studies, and Summaries of Research. (JD)

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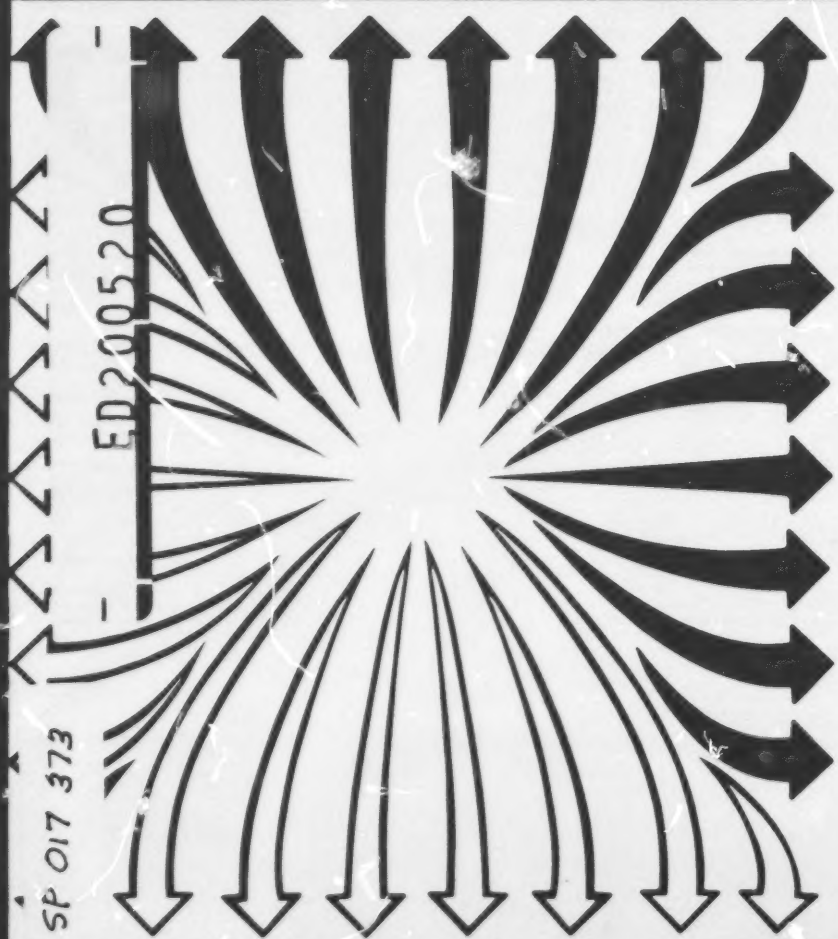

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MANAGEMENT OF DISRUPTIVE AND OFF-TASK BEHAVIORS: SELECTED RESOURCES

Sandra Schweighart Goss

and

Gary M. Ingersoll

Indiana University, Bloomington

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FOREWORD

Effective management of disruptive and off-task behaviors is a challenge that teachers must conquer. Discipline, disruptive behavior, and threats of physical violence are cited all too frequently as causes of stress and burnout among teachers. If teachers can keep their students interested and engaged in the tasks at hand, many of the disruptions of which they complain would be eliminated.

In publishing this annotated bibliography, the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education hopes to arm teachers, and the professors who teach them, with a battery of up-to-date sources of information. These resources can be used to meet the challenge of managing off-task behaviors before they lead to major disruptions or violence.

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The Clearinghouse gratefully acknowledges the professional contributions of the authors, Sandra Schweighart Goss and Gary M. Ingersoll. Ms. Goss is currently an advanced doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Psychology at Indiana University whose area of study is teacher behavior. Dr. Ingersoll is Associate Professor of Educational Psychology and Chairperson of the Educational Inquiry Methodology Program at Indiana University. His areas of research interest include classroom management and adolescent development. Acknowledgements also go to the content reviewers whose comments were helpful in preparing the final manuscript.

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SHARON G. BOARDMAN
Editor, ERIC Clearinghouse
on Teacher Education

INTRODUCTION: OBSERVATIONS ON CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

A decade ago, Jacob Kounin published his seminal work on classroom management, titled Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms (1970), in which he described a set of teacher behaviors that are related to the smooth functioning of a classroom. Since then, the scientific study of classroom management has reaped the benefits of a variety of investigators whose contributions have drawn on behavior modification principles as well as naturalistic studies of classrooms. Despite these contributions, discipline and class control remain primary concerns among preservice and inservice teachers, especially new teachers, and parents and principals point to the lack of adequate classroom control as a major cause for failure among

students.

This collection of annotated references is presented to bring practitioners and students of classroom management up-to-date on the nature of effective and ineffective classroom management. Specific reference is made to to those teacher behaviors that lead to higher rates of on-task behavior and lowered rates of off-task and disruptive behavior. The practicality of such a review is self-evident, because student, time-on-task has been demonstrated to be a primary element in level of achievement. Off-task behavior and disruption, on the other hand, have been demonstrated to be keys to lower levels of achievement.

The sheer quantity of literature on the topic of classroom management is staggering, and it is simply too diverse to include annotations to all sources in this one collection. Thus, certain guidelines were used in our selection or exclusion of items. First and foremost, we included only studies that bear on the maintenance of on-task behavior and/or discourage off-task behavior or disruptive behavior in the <u>normal</u> classroom. Second, preference was given to primary research studies or articles about such research. We have eliminated those articles that consisted primarily of anecdotal recollections. Although such articles may be interesting and informative, they

seldom include the needed controls in observation. That is not to say that all the citations included in this review are of equally high caliber. They are not. In most cases, we have refrained from editorial evaluations in this bibliography, but, certain studies impressed us as well-conceived and offering substantial, important information. Because these studies had a major impact on the contents of our remarks which follow, some relative weighting is implicit by our emphasis. (We have avoided making direct citations in these introductory remarks, as we prefer to have the reader review all the annotations before drawing conclusions.) Finally, we have concentrated our search on those studies published in the last decade. Only a few fundamental studies before 1970 are included.

One of the first problems we faced was to define classroom management. As it has been used, the term is broad and sometimes all inclusive. For this bibliography, the term was first defined broadly as those organizational, instructional, and managerial behaviors of a teacher that are parts of normal classroom activities. More specifically for this review, classroom management was limited to those managerial behaviors related to maintenance of on-task student behavior and reduction of off-task or disruptive behavior. Although not totally satisfactory, this definition will suffice.

As a result of reviewing the articles and books listed here, we derived some generalizations about effective classroom management, which are presented briefly below. A comparison of our conclusions and the citations in the bibliography will indicate that we were favorably impressed with the work of the team at the University of Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education (Linda M. Anderson, Barbara S. Clements, Edmund T. Emmer, Carolyn M. Evertson) as well as the work of Jere E. Brophy, now at the Institute for Research on Teaching at Michigan State University. For the reader who is looking for a readable summary of current research on classroom management, we refer to Walter Doyle's pamphlet, Classroom Management. (1980) Likewise, readers might find a valuable resource in the 1979 Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, also titled Classroom Management.

In compiling these annotations, certain commonalities emerged. The following paragraphs present a synopsis of these generalities. Demonstrated across most of the studies was a need for a well-defined structure of classroom organization. The effective classroom manager has a clearly defined structure that incorporates normal and unexpected events of the classroom. Further, the students are made aware of that structure and are part of it. Elements of that structure aid (or hinder) the smooth flow of the

classroom.

Transitions

Effective classroom managers shift from activity to activity with minimal interruption of smooth classroom flow. Transitions are not long, nor are they filled with irrelevant distractions. The teacher ends one activity before student attention wanes and initiates a new activity with the clear expectation conveyed to the students that they will be on-task. Transitions normally lead to some expected off-task student behavior, so little opportunity is provided for off-task behavior to escalate into more serious disruptive behavior. This ability to make smooth transistions appears especially critical in managing classrooms of lower-ability students.

Routines

Effective classroom managers use routine daily tasks to the benefit of the overall, smooth functioning of the class. Those regular, everyday activities that are part of the normal classroom pattern serve an important function in the maintenance of order. Students respond positively to established structures for handling routines, especially when they have clearly defined responsbilities in that process. Routines offer an element of predictability that

may balance some of the uncertainty related to new learning.

Rules and Regulations

Classroom rules should be defined early in the school year: The nature of the rules and the students' perceptions of the ramifications of violating those rules play important roles in the smooth functioning of a classroom. Rules should be seen as fair and reasonable. Evidence suggests that there should not be too many rules, and rules that are irrelevant to the primary functions of the classroom should be avoided. After the year is underway, the students should become partners in the decision making process for new rules or modification of old rules. Teacher reaction to violation of rules should be firm, fair, and consistent.

Behavior Modification

Several writers have attempted to temper the traditional view of behavior modification as the mechanistic use of rewards and reinforcers to control student behavior. At a minimum, effective classroom managers should understand principles of learning theory as they relate to altering student behavior and recognize the value of behavior techniques in appropriate cases. More generally, the advent of behavior modification as a management scheme has enlightened educators to the need to state clearly what

behaviors are desired orundesired, to precisely document the rate of those behaviors and to specify a program of intervention intended to alter behavior over an extended period of time. In addition, behavioral approaches focus teacher attention on the question of payoffs for appropriate or inappropriate behavior. Behavioral approaches offer a demand for precision that is clearly needed. The recognition and identification of payoffs also provides the classroom manager with a chance to employ contingency contracts. That is, a contract may be arranged between teacher and student in which specific desired behaviors are defined, and agreement is reached on a schedule of reinforcements that are tied to the student's production of the desired behaviors.

Monitoring

Teachers who are able to scan student behavior and recognize signs of potential disruption before behavior erupts into serious disruption are more likely to have smooth running classrooms. Those teachers who monitor effectively are able to sort through an exceedingly large amount of continuously changing information about student behavior and to sort that information into categories indicative of whether the behaviors aid or interfere with smooth classroom management. Effective monitors apparently

are able to make finer distinctions among highly similar, but qualitatively different, student, behaviors.

Withitness

In addition to the ability to continuously scan student behavior, effective classroom managers convey to the students the feeling that the teacher "knows what is going on." Kounin (1970) refers to this characteristic as withitness. This impression results from a teacher's highly visible, overt interventions that are appropriate and well-timed, combined with more subtle, covert cues through which a teacher conveys approval or disapproval of what the student is doing.

The timely, appropriate reactions of the teacher to a disruptive or potentially disruptive student also has an impact on other students. It discourages their disruption and encourages their maintaining on-task behavior. Kounin refers to this phenomenon as the "Ripple Effect." The converse is also true. That is, untimely, inappropriate under- or overreactions from a non-withit teacher have negative generalizations to other students.

Clearly, there is a dimension of appropriateness of teacher response to student behavior. The effective classroom manager has a repertoire of intervention strategies that diminish off-task and increase on-task

behavior. These strategies are seen by students as reasonble and appropriate. Further, the effective classroom manager is willing to initiate those strategies to exert control and to reinforce the students' awareness that the teacher is in charge.

First Few Weeks

Because a pattern of control and structure is established early in the school year, it is particularly important to establish routines, rules, and procedures quickly. Effective classroom managers are quicker to convey the idea that they are withit, that they know the dynamics of the classroom by noting who is and who is not on-task. Also, a pattern of consistency and fairness of rules is established.

Control

The dimension of control traditionally has caused distress among some writers in the area of classroom management. Too often, control is seen as equivalent to arbitrary and autocratic dominance of the classroom by an overbearing teacher. The differentiation offered by the psychologist Dianna Baumrind (1966) in her discussion of parenting styles illustrates the point. Baumrind describes two parenting styles that both rate high on a dimension of

control. Authoritarian parents excercise strong, harsh control in the absense of warm emotional support. Authoritative parents also exercise firm control, but the higher control is paired with high emotional support.

With reference to teaching, the authoritarian teacher exercises firm, rigid autocratic control. The teacher dominates, but the domination is aloof and not directed at the positive personal growth of students. Students' self-esteem or self-concept is of little consequence. Because order and control are ends in-and-of themselves, control becomes repressive.

The authoritative teacher also exercises firm control, but the control is paired with warmth and a genuine concern for the well-being of the students. Order and control are seen as a means to an end. The teacher views classroom control as an element in providing an atmosphere in which students may experience positive personal growth.

The authoritative teacher, as we define this person, establishes a degree of control and structure within the classroom that offers a sense of stability and security. Limits of acceptable behavior are clearly specified and the ramifications of violating limits are understood. The limits are not arbitrary and dogmatic; they are fair and reasonable.

Presumably, the authoritative teacher simultaneously

must be effective in monitoring student behavior and in letting students know that they are being observed. Beyond conveying an impression of awareness of student behavior, the authoritative classroom manager conveys an empathy that indicates an awareness of the "Why?" of a behavior. The teacher must be alert to the underlying causes of behavior. For example, aggression that results from trouble at home should be treated differently from aggression resulting from boredom. Teacher control and interventions are altered in relation to the interpretation of the reasons for a behavior. Intervention is neither arbitrary nor capricious.

As well as knowing when and how to intervene, authoritative classroom managers also know when <u>not</u> to intervene and exert control. In some cases, the most appropriate reaction to unwanted student behavior is no reaction. The teacher recognizes that sometimes it reaction to student misbehavior that is stimulates more off-task behavior.

Finally, authoritative teachers must be sensitive to the needs of students to exert self-control. Over the course of a year, the teacher may find it possible to reduce the amount of teacher control and increase the expectations of student self-control. Although true at all grade levels, self-control is particularly important as young people progress through high school. Adolescents experience a

strong need to be seen as independent functioning adults. It would be inappropriate to release control at the first signs of this transition, but control should be regularly reduced over the high school years until, by the end of their senior year, students should be expected to effectively control own behavior.

REFERENCES

Baumrind, Diana Authoritarian vs. authoritative control. Adolescence, 1968, 3, 255-272.

Adapting Teaching Styles to Learning Styles. Robert Spaulding. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 27-31 March 1978, Toronto, Canada. (ERIC No. ED 161870.)

This study relied on case studies to stress the point that teachers must develop classroom management schedules to match the learning styles of students. A student's "coping" behavior is an integral part of learning style. The author groups student behaviors into learning styles: dominating behavior, passive behavior, off-task behavior, daydreaming, conformity, self-motivation, etc. Spaulding then offers six teacher management schedules to fit learning styles. Each of the schedules is elaborated in detail to indicate which teacher behaviors are related to each.

"The Applications of Operant Conditioning Techniques in a Secondary Classroom." Loring W. McAllister, James G. Stakowiak, Donald M. Baer, and Linda Conderman. In James D. Long and Robert L. Williams (eds.), Classroom Management with Adolescents. New York: MSS Information, 1973.

These authors investigated the effects of teacher praise and verbal reprimands on a low-tracked junior-senior English class. The target behaviors were inappropriate talking and turning around. Baseline measures revealed a high rate of occurrence of both. The teacher was trained to use verbal praise and reproof. Praise was used to reinforce appropriate talking when no appropriate talking was present. Reproof was used in response to inappropriate talking. Similar uses of praise and reproof were used in responding to turning around. By the end of the study, appropriate talking was higher in the experimental group than the control group and inappropriate talking was consisderably lower in the experimental group. Inappropriate turning around was four times as high in the control group.

"The Application of Social Reinforcement in Six Junior High School Classrooms." William Courmier and Robert Wahler. In James Long and Robert Williams (eds.), Classroom Management with Adolescents. New York: MSS Information, 1973.

These authors studied the impact of regular, specific praise versus irregular, largely random praise on classroom behavior of economically disadvantaged adolescents. Results indicate that teacher praise of desired behavior paired with ignoring undesired behavior increased the desired behavior and reduced the undesired behavior of students. Also, irrelevant praise led to an improvement in student behavior perhaps indicating that any praise is better than none.

"Assessing Inservice Training Needs Through Teacher Responses." Gary M. Ingersoll. Journal of Teacher Education, 1976, 27(2), 169-73.(ERIC No. EJ 147 299.)

Inservice teachers at the elementary, junior high and senior high school levels were surveyed to determine their perceptions of training needs. Teachers tended to categorize classroom management as routine managerial tasks which were not in high demand. Discipline, on the other hand, was seen as independent of classroom management and was seen as a skill in need of development, especially by less experienced teachers. Other results indicated that teachers see training needs in the areas of interpersonal communication and administration, developing pupil self, individualized instruction, assessment, and developing personal self.

"Changing Teacher and Pupil Performance With Protocols." Walter R. Borg. Journal of Experimental Education, 1977, 45(3), 9-18.(ERIC No. EJ 163 499.)

Teachers were either trained in skills related to withitness or were trained in skills related to development of positive self-concept. Teachers in each group showed an increase in their respectively trained behaviors. A significantly greater decrease in mildly and severely disruptive behaviors was found in the classes of those teachers given training in classroom management skills.

"Classmates as Workmates: Informal Peer Activity in the Elementary School." R. Timothy Seiber. Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 1979, 10, 207-35.

The author conducted a field study of interrelations between peer group activity and the school organizational environment. Student behaviors were rated by teachers as either conducive to classroom organization or as discordant with smooth organization. Student responses that teachers considered cooperative and adaptive were: (a) clarification of teacher directions to other students who are confused, (b) helping each other to work through problems, (c) providing standards of work performance, (d) cooperating in the use of tools and materials, and (e) contributing to classroom social control. Student behaviors that were rated as discordant with teachers' organizational goals: (a) playing, (b) fooling around, (c) going wild, and (d) being nasty. Discipline techniques that teachers commonly used to insure continuity were isolation, exclusion, rearrangement of seating, and peer pressure.

Classrooms and Corridors. Mary Metz Berkely, Calif.: University California Press, 1978.

This book reports of a field study of two recently desegreagted schools. The author distinguishes between two types of teachers, those who are incorporative and view students as passive absorbers of knowledge conveyed by the teacher, and those who are developmental and view students as active learners and the role of teacher as facilitating that active process. The author assesses different teachers, reactions to the role of superordinate, how they adjust to the students, how they react to student challenges, what resources they use to achieve control, and how they handle authority.

"Comparison of Heterogeneous and Homogeneous Junior High Classes." Julie P. Sanford. Austin, Texas: University of Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education. Austin, Texas, February, 1980.

Data were analyzed to relate homogeneous and heterogeneous ability grouping to classroom enviornment. Achievement gains and self-concepts were of secondary interest in this analysis. Findings include the following: (a)The first three weeks of teacher behavior in the

classroom appear more difficult in the heterogeneous classroom. Teachers in those classes had more difficulty in adapting instruction to the needs of individual students. Adaptation of instruction was much easier in the homogeneous classrooms. Effective teachers in both types of classes appear to make adjustments within the first few weeks. (b) Teachers in extremely heterogeneous classes did not seem able to meet the affective needs of many of their students. (c) There were lower levels of task engagement and student cooperation in highly heterogeneous classes. (d) No clear advantage in academic achievement was found for middle and upper ability students in homogeneous versus heterogeneous classes. Some tentative evidence favored homogeneous classes for lower ability students.

Teachers coped with the problems of highly heterogeneous classes in a variety of modes including: (a) providing special attention and in class help to the lower ability students, (b) some within-class groupings, (c) differential grading and evaluating on student ability levels and relative progress, (d) some use of peer tutoring, (e) frequent and regular feedback on academic progress, and (f) high levels of monitoring students, holding them accountable for written work, and in-class participation.

"Curriculum Pacing: Some Empirical Data in Mathematics." Thomas Good, Douglas A. Grouws, and Terrill Beckerman. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 1978, 10(1), 75-81. (ERIC No. EJ 207 155.)

The authors conclude that the pace of instruction in a given class and the amount of material to which students are exposed is influenced by a "steering group," which is made up, of those students in the 10 to 25 percentile range. The actual selection of the steering group is influenced by the teacher's instructional goals, the sequence and complexity of the content units, and the total amount of instructional time available. As the ability of the steering group progresses, the teacher's instructional pace increases and student achievement also increases. All in all, teachers who move through the material at a faster pace had higher levels of mathematics achievement among their students and their classes showed fewer behavioral problems.

"Degree of Continuity of a Lesson's Signal System and the Task Involvement of Children." Jacob S. Kounin and Patrick H. Doyle. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1975, 67(2), 159-64.

The authors, operating from an ecological perspective, assess the impact of continuity of the signal system of a lesson on the level of task involvement of elementary school children. Using videotapes of individual construction lessons, lessons involving teachers reading from books, and teacher demonstrations, they found higher degrees of continuity of lessons were associated with higher levels of task involvement by the students.

Deviance in Classrooms. David Hargreaves, Stephan Hester, and Frank Mellor. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1975.

This was a two-year research study on the impact of being labelled ;deviant; on classroom behavior. The labelling process was seen as a four-step sequence: (a) the pupil commits a deviant act, (b) the teacher labels the act or person as deviant, (c) problems are experienced by the pupil because of the labelling, and (d) the pupil commits further deviant acts to resolve conflict and this confirms teacher and pupil expectations.

"Differences in instructional activities in high and Low Achieving Junior High Classes." Carolyn M. Evertson. Austin, Texas: University of Texas Research and Development Center on Teacher Education, March, 1980. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. not yet assigned; Clearinghouse No. SP 017 183.)

The focus of this article is on the strategies and behaviors used by teachers who teach similar subject matter to classes of differing ability levels. The results show that the teachers in low ability classes took longer in making transitions from one topic to another, and that more of their time was spent in responding to task-irrelevant behavior of the students. Two case studies of teachers of low ability classes were presented to contrast teacher behaviors that were seen as successful in dealing with the problems of low ability students with teacher behaviors that were less effective and successful. The successful teacher was more able to rechannel the behavior of the low ability students by varying lecture and discussion and by

interspersing brief, highly focused seatwork assignments that were closely monitored by the teacher. Off-task behavior was common in the low ability classes, and much of it occurred during seatwork. Short, highly monitored tasks reduced the rate of distracted behavior.

Discipline and Group Management in Classrooms. Jacob Kounin, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970.

Kounin's primary research in the field of clasroom management is often seen as a turning point in the study of discipline and classroom control. Originally, Kounin was concerned with what he called the "Ripple Effect," or the way in which a teacher's handling of misbehavior on the part of one student influences other children in the classroom who are not themselves the targets of intervention. As a result of his observations, Kounin also recognized that the the quality of "Desists," the actual teacher behaviors that were used to intervene in undesired student behavior, also were related to effectiveness of classroom management. Desists varied on dimensions of clarity, timeliness, firmness, and roughness. An important observation from Kounin's work is that those teachers who were most effective in maintaining smooth classroom functioning were able to convey to the students the impression that they were aware of what was going on in the classroom. The students saw the teacher as being "Withit," which incorporates the effective use of overt desists as well as covert desists in cuing the student that a misbehavior or the potential for misbehavior is recognized and will not be allowed. In addition, "withit" teachers are able to "Overlap." That is, they are able to monitor several events simultaneously and appear to be alert to all parts of the classroom.

"Educator Perceptions of Student Discipline." William G. Camp. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 7-11 April 1980. (ERIC No. ED 187 006.)

This author attempts to develop a list of student behaviors that school teachers and administrators perceive to be problems in student discipline. After a literature review, Camp compiled a list of such behaviors which was refined and given to a sample of secondary teachers and administrators. Results indicated that teachers rate aggression and drug-related behaviors as the most serious,

but they rate general motivational problems as the most frequent problem behaviors. This led the author to caution that too much emphasis may be placed on the extreme, highly dangerous problems and not enough on the more common, but relatively mild student misbehaviors. Camp also found that rural teachers were less likely to rate behaviors as problem behaviors.

"Effective Management at the Beginning of the School Year in Junior High Classes." Edmund T. Emmer and Carolyn M. Evertson, Austin, Texas: University of Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, March, 1980. (ERIC No. ED 178 542)

Data were analyzed to study the relationship of teacher managerial behavior in the first three weeks of school to the longer-range characterization of the teachers as effective or less effective classroom managers. Four clusters of variables emerged, which were related to that distinction: (a) Rules and procedures for the classroom were established early and the teacher monitored student compliance and followed through with consequences for noncompliance. Those teachers who were rated more effective in the long run monitored more extensively, attended to inappropriate behavior more quickly, and were more consistent in what they indicated was allowed and not allowed. (a) Students were expected to maintain personal responsibility for their work. Effective teachers were more task-oriented and kept better track of how the students were progressing. They were more likely to concentrate their monitoring at the beginning of activities on detecting inability to handle an assignment or misunderstandings of the assignment. (c) More effective teachers were better able to communicate information and expectations clearly. They were also better able to assess students' entering skill levels. (d) More effective teachers were better at organizing instruction. They had less wasted time in their activities and more time-on-task. They also used a whole-class format more often.

"The Effects of Instructing Teachers about Good Teaching on the Mathematics Achievement of Fourth Grade Students." Howard Ebmeier and Thomas Good. American Educational Research Journal, 1979, 16(1), 1-16. (ERIC No. EJ 205 643.)

Levels of achievement on a standard test of mathematics

achievement at the beginning and end of the school year provide the data on which this study is based. An experimental group of fourth-grade teachers were trained in the use of a "Direct Intructional Model," while a control group was not. Four teacher types (educated/secure, experienced/unsure, individualized, and less experienced/less educated) and four student types (dependent, high achievers/task oriented, independent, and low achievers/withdrawn) were also identified and included in the analysis. The study concludes that the combined effects of teacher type, student type, and whether the tachers were or were not trained made a difference in level of students' mathematics achievement.

"The Effects of Loud and Soft Reprimands on the Behavior of Disruptive Students." K. Daniel O'Leary, Kenneth F. Kaufman, Ruth E. Kass, and Ronald S. Drabman. Exceptional Children, 1970, 37, 145-55. (ERIC No. EJ 026 490.)

Children selected for this study had shown high levels of disruptive behaviors in the previous four months. During the baseline condition, almost all teacher reprimands were found to be loud. Teachers were then asked to use soft reprimands, audible only to the disruptive or misbehaving child. After a trial period teachers were asked to resume loud reprimands. Results showed that misbehavior decreased during the soft reprimand conditions and increased during the loud reprimand conditions. The authors suggest that the use of soft reprimands for misbehavior paired with praise for appropriate behavior, and only occassional use of loud reprimands, will reduce disruptive behavior most effectively.

"An Experimental Study of Effective Teaching in First-Grade Reading Groups." Linda M. Anderson, Carolyn M. Evertson, and Jere E. Brophy. Elementary School Journal, 1979, 79(4), 193-223. (ERIC No. EJ 201 788.)

This study investigated what teacher behaviors contribute to and facilitate students' learning to read in the first grade. The authors first tried to develop an instructional model composed of a set of "curriculum free" guidelines for teacher management of group instruction. One group of teachers was given a specific list of 22 rules, that included: (a) getting and maintaining students' attention, (b) introducing the lesson and materials, (c)

calling on individual students in the group, (d) responding to individual differeneces in a group setting, (e) giving feedback for correct and incorrect answers and failures to respond, and (f) using praise and criticism. A second group of teachers was not given these instructions. Significant differences in student reading achievement scores were found between students of the two groups of teachers with students in the instructed teachers group having the higher scores.

"A Factor Analysis of Classroom Disturbance Intercorrelations." Beverly Y. Kooi and Richard E. Schutz American Educational Research Journal, 1965, 2(1), 37-40.

Using data from a 1943 study (Margaret Hayes), the authors find five factors that account for most types of classroom disturbances. I: Physical aggression. This factor accounted for most of the differences in degree of classroom disturbance. II: Peer affinity. These behaviors do not seem to be aimed at antagonizing the teacher or other pupils. Instead the sociable pupil is trying to use distraction of his friends as a means of breaking classroom routine. III: Attention seeking. These behaviors include those disturbances that fall short of physical agression that demand teacher or student attention. IV: Challenge of authority. Behaviors that are directed at testing limits and defying the authority of the teacher. V: Critical dissention. Student dissatisfaction with current class situations leads to complaints and criticisms. Usually, the initiator tries to get peers to join in.

"The First Weeks of Class . . . and the Rest of the Year." Edmund T. Emmer, Carolyn M. Evertson, and Linda M. Anderson. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 8-12 April, 1979, San Francisco. (ERIC No. ED 175 861.)

Findings from this research reveal that one can indeed predict which teachers will be effective versus less effective classroom managers on the basis of in-class behavior during the first few weeks of class. Factors which differentiate effective from less effective teachers include: (a) the presentation and follow-up on classroom rules and procedures, (b) skill in monitoring student behavior, (c) reliable and consistent delivery of consequences for misbehavior, and (d) the teacher's procedures for coping. The evidence supports the view that

well defined, consistent classroom and instructional organization is a primary component in differentiating effective from less effective classroom managers.

"Improving Student Learning Through Changing Teacher Behavior: The Helping/Supportive Student-Teacher Relationship." Barbara Valerious, March, 1977 (ERIC No. ED 139 778.)

Teachers were trained in group guidance techniques in an effort to improve their interpersonal relationships with students. The stress in this study was on interpersonal relations and, thus, some teachers showed a substantial shift in leadership style. The program was judged a success on the basis of improved learning growth rates on the part of the students and a decrease in the number of discipline referrals and school vandalism.

"Increasing the Accuracy of Monitoring Classroom Behavior." Gary M. Ingersoll and David Gliessman. Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University, 1980 (submitted for publication).

In a simulated clasroom setting, preservice teachers were trained in categorizing student classroom behavior. The results indicate that their ability to monitor and scan student behavior is improved with training and that trained observers are better able to make finer discriminations among student behaviors.

"The Influence of Problem Ownership on Teachers' Perception of and Strategies for Coping with Problem Students." Mary M. Rohrkemper and Jere E. Brophy. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 7-11 April, 1980, boston. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. not yet assigned; Clearinghouse No. SP 017 313.)

Teachers who were identified by their principals as being outstanding or as average in ability to deal with problem students were interviewed using vignettes of classroom problems as a base. The vignettes were intended to represent: (a) teacher owned problems--that is, student behaviors that interfere with the teacher's needs or cause the teacher to feel frustrated, upset, etc.; (b) student-owned problems--that is, student behaviors which

exist separately from and do not effect the teacher; (c) problems shared by the teacher and the students--that is, patterns in which the teacher and student interfere with each others' needs. Teacher responses to the vignettes were coded in terms of (a) where the teacher attributed the source and impact of the problem--self or student; (b) types of rewards and punishments the teachers reported they would use in dealing with the student; and (c) a qualitative rating of the teacher's response. Teachers were pessimistic about their abilities to change student behavior in the problem vignettes centered on teacher-owned problems. They tended to perceive student behaviors as controlled and intentional. On the other hand, teachers rated student behaviors in student-owned problems as largely out of the students' control and more able to be handled by the teacher. Whomever the teacher perceived as having the problem greatly influenced the intervention strategy selected.

The Junior High Classroom Organization Study: Summary of Training Procedures and Methodology." Carolyn M. Evertson, Edmund T. Emmer, and Barbara Clements. Austin, Texas: University of Texas Research and Development Center on Teacher Education, February 1980. (ERIC No ED 1899 050.)

The reference is included because a large proportion of the studies cited in this annotated bibliography draw upon the Junior High School Classroom Organization Study (JHCOS). The paper focuses on the purposes and methodology of the JCHOS. The authors describe how observers were selected and trained and how observations were conducted. Examples of the observation instruments and rating systems are given, as well as examples for time logs. The authors identified the primary dimensions that were to form the basis of analysis of the data.

"Making Sense of School." Howard Gannaway. In Michael Stubbs and Sara Delamont (eds.), Explorations in Classroom Observation. London: John Wiley, 1976.

Taking the student perspective, Gannaway divides his analysis into sections on (a) order and authority, (b) the ideal teacher and his subject, and (c) work and boredom. Both students and teachers see the first meeting as an occasion when rules are laid down. Students view the primary test of a "real" teacher as whether he or she can

keep order. Students expect the teacher to be able to maintain order, and when that does not happen it comes as a shock to the students. Teacher inability to maintain order may also raise feelings of guilt, frustration and aggression in the students. Student like or dislike of a subject was based largely on the amount of structure involved. The biggest problems occurred when the students could not understand the structure of the subject. Also, there is a mismatch in the criteria students and teachers use in evaluating the worth of a subject. Teachers emphasize those activities that they see as valuable in light of future goals. Students value activities that are enjoyable and make sense in the present.

"Managerial Behaviors of Elementary School Teachers and Student On-Task Behavior." Jane McCarthy Goldstein and Wilford A. Weber. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 8-12 April 1979, San Francisco. (ERIC No ED 173 315.)

Student time-on-task was found to be positively related to the group-process approach and the socioemotional approach while it was negatively related to authoritarian and permissive approaches. The strongest positive correlation between teacher managerial behavior and student time-on-task was with an approach that combined elements of behavior modification, group process variables, and socioemotional approaches.

"Organizational Structure and Student Behavior in Secondary School." Philip Cusick, William Martin, and Stuart Palonsky. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 1976, 8(1), 3-14.

The authors assume that organizational structures are never neutral. Because of prescribed roles, decision-making constraints, technology, and communication patterns, organizational structures shape the ways in which participants behave. They conclued, "Students spent most of their school time hanging around with one another in small, informal groups that were narrowly bounded by age, class, sex, interests, and activities." On the average, 200 minutes of each school day was spent by each student on procedural or maintenance details or in waiting for other students to finish with theirs. Even during formal instruction there were extensive blocks of time in which students had nothing to do academically. Most high schools are structured in

ways that teachers do most or all of what is to be done and student involvement is discouraged. Also, they concluded that traditional high schools lack vitality, have only limited ability to control or change behavior that goes on inside the school, and are unable to admit the existence of diversity or conflict. Instead, the schools are forced to resort to demands for uniformity imposed by authoritarian control.

Performance on Multiple-Attention Measures as a predictor of the Classroom Management Proficiency Displayed by Student Teachers. Robert Schumm. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University, 1971.

The author chose to examine Kounin's concept of overlapping by measuring teacher trainees' ability to engage in multiple activities simultaneously that he subsequently correlated to their rated ability as clasroom managers. Dependent variables included proficiency in dealing with student misbehavior, ability to attend to several events in the classroom at any given time, and ability to manage the class in structured lessons.

"Project Success Environment: A Positive Contingency Program for Elementary Teachers' Management." Marion Thompson, Scott Person, and Howard Rollins. Sponsored by the Georgia State, Department of Education, September 1973. (ERIC No. ED 124 606.)

A three-year study was conducted on the effects of a positive reinforcement, system, classroom arrangement, and curriculum on student classroom behavior. The results showed that students in the positive reinforcement groups had 50 percent fewer disruptions than the control group and spent 80 percent of their time on academic tasks while the control group was engaged academically only 55 to 65 percent of the time.

"Pupils' Expectations of Their Teachers." Roy Nash. In Michael Stubbs and Sara Delamont (eds.), Explorations in Classroom Observation London: John Wiley, 1976.

Twelve-year-olds were interviewed to assess their views on teaching and classroom management. The students

typically categorized teacher behaviors along dimensions of: (a) keeps order or fails to keep order, (b) teaches you or does not, (d) explains well or does not, (d) is interesting or boring, (e) is fair or unfair, and (f) is friendly or unfriendly. Students expected teachers to teach well-defined, specific subjects, and that the lessons contain variety and flow smoothly. Students also had strong expectations regarding teacher behavior and teacher rules. Nash concluded that a new classroom full of students is not a blank slate to be molded, but an ongoing social system. To introduce change into that system the teacher must renegotiate the contract with the students.

"The Relationship of Teacher Perceptions to Classroom Processes and Student Outcomes." Barbara S. Clements. Austin, Texas: University of Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, 1980. (ERIC Documentation Reproduction Service Number not yet assigned)

This study analyzed the relationship between teacher beliefs and effectiveness of classroom management. Teacher beliefs were related to teacher control, socioemotional concerns, integrative learning, and role separation. Criteria for management effectiveness included average class achievement gains, student ratings, of the teacher, amount of ontask behavior, amount of off-task behavior, amount of unsanctioned behavior, and an overall observer rating of teacher management. The results showed that teachers high in socio-emotional concerns and low in role separation and integrative learning, were likely to get high student ratings but were low on measures of academic gain and ontask behavior. Teachers high in role separation, high in integrative learning and low in socio-emotional concerns had higher proportions of on-task behaviors, higher achievement gains, and were rated as more effective managers.

"Routines in Teacher Planning." Robert Yinger. Theory into Practice, 1979, 18, 163-69. (ERIC No EJ 215 121.)

The author conducted a detailed descriptive case study of an elementary teacher's planning decisions over a five-month period. He found that activities were the basic structural unit around which classroom instruction was organized. The teacher planned instructional activities with specific reference to location, sequence and structure, duration, participants, acceptable student behavior,

instructional moves, and the content and materials necessary. Routines, or those established procedures whose main function is to provide continuity, played a major role in the teacher's planning behavior. Routines were of four types: activity routines, instructional routines, management routines, and executive planning routines. When used properly, routines increase teacher effectiveness and flexibility by freeing teacher time. Routines also increase effective in-class time and student time-on-task by increasing the predictability of the classroom day and reducing student anxiety about what is to come.

"Signal Systems of Lesson Settings and the Task-Related Behavior of Preschool Children." Jacob Kounin and Paul Gump. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1974, 66(4), 554-62.

The relationships between properties of formal lessons and the behavior of students was studied. Of particular interest was the impact that continuity of the instructional "signal" or the impact of multiple "signals" had on student task involvement. As the number of signal sources increased, the level of task involvement diminished. In lessons in which there was a single continuous signal (a teacher involved in a demonstration), task involvement was higher.

"Stability of Teacher Effects in Junior High Classrooms." Edmund T. Emmer, Carolyn M. Evertson, and Jere E. Brophy. American Educational Research Journal, 1979, 16 (1), 71-5. (ERIC No. EJ 205 649.)

Teacher effects on student achievement were studied across different classes taught by the same teacher during the same year. Results in both English and mathematics classes indicated that the teacher's effect differed for groups in relation to the original achievement level of the group.

"A Study of Teacher Planning." Robert Yinger. Elementary School Journal, 1980, 80, 107-27. (ERIC No. EJ 222 294.)

The author's basic premise is that planning is an

essential skill for teachers in maintaining academic involvement and effective classroom management. Yinger describes two models of planning that he finds inaccurate: The rational-choice model assumes that teachers start their classroom planning from a set of defined objectives, but actually they start with the content to be taught, The integrated ends-means model assumes that teachers focus on learning activities and that goals and objectives emerge only from the student's engagement with the task; hence, objectives are unique to each student's experience. Yinger offers a "general process" model of teacher planning, which the teacher first searches out ideas for instructional activities. The teacher elaborates on the initial idea over time, adapting new work to previous experience. These plans are then implemented, evaluated, modified, and ultimately routinized.

"Tasks, Group Management, and Teacher Control Behavior: A Study of Classroom Organization and Teacher Style." Steven T. Bossert. School Review, 1977, 85, 552-65. (ERIC No. EJ 169 047.)

A field study was conducted in an effort to distinguish patterns of class task organization. Three distinctive patterns emerged: Recitation which involved the entire class, but was teacher controlled; single class tasks, which were done individually, but which the whole class was expected to complete; and multi-task, multi-outcome patterns in which many different tasks were done simultaneously. The latter allowed the greatest pupil choice. Bossert found a regular relationship between the pattern of classroom task organization and teacher behavior. Teachers became more structured, adhered more rigidly to rules, and were more dominant when involved in recitation tasks. Conversely, they became less rigid and more open in multi-task settings.

"Teacher Rapport: Some Stability Data." Thomas L. Good and Douglas A. Grouws. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1975, 67(2), 179-82. (ERIC No. EJ 120 166.)

Teachers' rapport with their classes over two consecutive years was studied through the use of a 10-item, self-report questionnaire administered to third- and fourth-graders in 75 classrooms. Student perceptions from year to year were not highly stable. However, the seven highest rated teachers and the seven lowest rated teachers

from the first year showed greater stability in the ratings they received.

"Teacher Transitions Can Disrupt Time Flow in Classrooms." Marshall Arlin. American Educational Research Journal, 1979, 16(1), 42-56. (ERIC No. 205 647.)

This study focuses on the amount of off-task student behavior that occurs during transition (teacher-initiated directives to students to end one activity and start another). Using naturalistic observation techniques, 50 student teachers at the elementary and junior high levels were studied in an attempt to evaluate the quality of their transitions and the resulting levels of off-task behavior. Findings showed that the rate of student off-task behavior during transitions was almost twice the rate during regular class time. However, transitions could be structured to minimize disruptive behavior. The transitions that involved the least pupil disruption contained smoothness, momentum, and continuity of signal. The author also observed that teacher often used a "steering group" in the timing of transitions and or transitional decisions. He goes on to suggest that the quality of transitions may serve as an easily observable indicator of the general quality of time management procedures used in the classroom.

"Teachers' General Strategies for Dealing with Problem Students." Mary M. Rohrkemper and Jere E. Brophy. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 7-11 April 1980, Boston. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. not yet assigned; Clearinghouse No. SP 017 315.)

The authors focus their attention on the presence and types of reward, punishment, support, and threatening or pressuring behavior which teachers report using with difficult students. They found little correlation between trained observers ratings of the teachers' abilities to deal with problem students and the teachers' self perceptions of their abilities, or principals' classifications of these abilities. The greatest relationship for predicting adequacy of handling problem pupil behavior was how seldom (or frequently) the teacher called on the administration for help in handling dificult students. Those teachers who were

rated as outstanding in their abilities to deal with problem students were found to punish less, were more supportive and assuring, used more symbolic rewards, and were more likely to use contingency contracts to involve students in their behavior changes. Teachers rated by the trained observers as less effective were more punitive, less supportive of students, more distanced from the students, less verbal, and more oriented toward action.

"Teachers' Specific Strategies for Dealing with Hostile, Aggressive Students." Jere E. Brophy and Mary M. Rohrkemper. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 7-11 April 1980, Boston. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. not yet assigned; Clearinghouse No. SP 017 314.)

This study focuses on teacher reactions to two vignettes involving student aggressive behavior. The authors tailored a unique coding system to the specifics of each vignette to distinguish between the teachers' handling of the basic task and those teacher responses considered to be optional or a matter of personal style. Contrary to the authors' expectations, location was the far strongest correlate of teachers' response to aggression. Inner-city teachers tended to minimize both their responses to the immediate situation and to any attempt to follow-up their response later. Suburban teachers were more likely to assume personal responsibility for investigating and dealing with an incident, and were more likely to follow-up the incident with additional, appropriate behavior if necessary. There were also grade differences in teacher responses to the vignettes. Teachers in the lower grades were more likely to try to socialize the aggressor and to follow-up the incident with referral of assistance than were teachers in the higher grades. The evidence indicated that teachers are largely ill-equipped to deal with aggressive incidents in their classrooms, and that many teachers, although they are aware of the problem of aggressive students,do not see dealing with aggressive pupils as part of a teacher's job.

"Time-On-Task and Reading Performance in Underachieving Children." Marvin Wyne and Gary B. Stuck. Journal of Reading Behavior, 1979, 11, 119-29.

Elementary school pupils identified as being one or more years behind in reading achievement and who were

observed spending low percentages of time-on-task were selected for participation in a short-term, highly structured program designed to increase task oriented behavior. Two different groups participated in three separate eight-week intervention phases. For each phase, a comparison group remained in the regular classroom. Following the intervention, the trained students showed significantly higher levels of on-task behavior and reading performance. The advantages in reading were maintained over a four-month period.

"Time Off-Task: Implications for Learning." Margaret Rusnock and Natalia Brandler. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 8-12 April 1979 San Francisco.

The authors attempted to determine what factors underly the appearance of off-task behavior. They found that lower-achieving students were less likely to interrupt creative activities with off-task behavior than in recitation activities. Further, the academic activity type was more important in assessing the frequency of interruptive off-task behavior than was the activity format. Surprisingly, lower and higher achieving students did not differ in their overall amount of off-task behavior. However, lower achieving students were more likely to interrupt an academic activity with off-task behavior, while higher achieving students tended to engage in off-task behavior when the task was finished and they were waiting for the next task. One other curious finding was that an element of deception was more likely to be found in the off-task behavior of low-ability students. Their off-task behavior was sometimes masked in ways that the teacher might interpret it as on-task. Higher-ability students seemed less concerned about masking their off-task behavior.

SUMMARIES OF RESEARCH

"The Case for Teaching Social Skills in the Classroom." Gwendolyn Cartledge and Jo Ann F. Milbern. Review of Educational Research, 1978, 48(1), 133-56.

The authors contend that certain social skills such as attending, remaining on task, volunteering answers complying with teacher requests and interacting positively with teachers and peers about school work are positively correlated with academic achievement and individual success. After surveying literature, they confirm their four basic hypotheses: (a) Social behaviors are taught informally all of the time in the school classroom. (b) Some social behaviors are important prerequisites for successful academic performace -- especially personal interaction skills and task-related skills. (c) Effective procedures exist for the systematic teaching of social behaviors -- particularly through social modeling and differential reinforcement. (d) The school classroom is the best setting for teaching academically relevant, scial behaviors. Children labeled as underachievers or learning disabled often demonstrate a lack of these behaviors. They conclude that in spite of the controversy, the evidence points to the fact that obedient, controlled, conforming behavior in the classroom is highly related to academic achievement and that it should be fostered.

Classroom Management. Walter Doyle. West Lafayette, Ind: Kappa Delta Pi, 1980.

In this booklet, Doyle summarizes much of the current knowledge on how classroom order is accomplished and maintained. He begins and closes with the firm position that effective teachers are effective managers; each implies the other. Doyle first offers an analysis of the complexity of the average classroom environment. He notes that such a setting has characteristics that are multidimensional, public, and unpredictable. Many events occur simultaneously and often require immediate teacher response. The teacher's

initial task is to gain and maintain the cooperation of students in activities that fill classroom time. Classroom order rests on the teacher's ability to maintain those activities. Gaining student cooperation is accomplished by: (a) setting clear rules and limits at the beginning of the school year, (b) selecting and arranging activities, (c) being adequately prepared, (d) monitoring and timing activities used in the classroom, and (e) stopping misbehavior (including the decision whether to actively intervene or not).

Doyle concluded that, at a minimum, the effective classroom manager must possess an extensive knowledge of what is likely to happen in classrooms, an ability to process a large amount of information rapidly, and the skill to carry out effective actions over a long period of time.

"Dimensions in Classroom Management Derived from Recent Research." Linda M. Anderson, Carolyn M. Evertson, and Edmund T. Emmer. Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Educational Research Association, 8-12 April 1979, San Francisco. (ERIC No ED 175 860.)

This paper reviews research findings on information gathered over a complete school year from a group of 28 third-grade teachers. The report concentrated on the definition of managerial behaviors and examined teachers' managerial behaviors in terms of the quality of information conveyed to students about desired and undesired behavior. According to the authors, effective classroom managers are distinguished from less effective managers by three clusters of teacher behaviors. First, effective teachers convey the purposefulness and meaningfulness of academic activities. Second, effective managers instruct students in the skills of good behavior. Third, effective managers behave in ways that imply a sense of students' levels of understanding and needs for additional information. The awareness was reflected largely in the selection of activities in response to those needs.

Maintaining Discipline in Classroom Instruction. William J. Gnagey. New York: Macmillan, 1975.

The author's major premise is that good classroom discipline depends on the maintenance of an environment that optimizes appropriate learning. From previous research, he summarizes seven approaches to classroom management

1. Prevention. From Kounin's work, this dimension includes smoothness, optimal lesson movements, and group focus.
2. "Antiseptic" Methods. Behavior problems are viewed as resulting from blocked goals. Suggestions are offered for dealing with misbehavior in such a framework.
3. Ripple Effect. Again relying on Kounin's work, this approach emphasizes the impact of control of one student's behavior on the behavior of other students in the classroom.
4. Behavior Modification. The systematic use of principles of learning defined by B. F. Skinner to shape and control student behavior. Gnagey notes that this is mainly training teachers to do what they normally do, only more systematically.
5. Punishment. Although cautioning against its general use, Gnagey describes how punishment may be used effectively.
6. Self-control. Students are taught to control their own behaviors.
7. Reality Therapy. Basic elements of discipline must involve a student's understanding the need to obey reasonable rules and regulations.

The author also includes a checklist to help teachers evaluate their disciplinary techniques.

"Research on Classroom Management: Based on a Review of the Literature in 1979." Jere E. Brophy. Paper presented to the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 8-12 April 1979, San Francisco.

The literature on classroom management is reviewed and, although no single study has looked simultaneously at all elements in the area of classroom management, Brophy is able to argue that a comprehensive treatment of classroom management must include:

1. An awareness of student characteristics and individual differences.
2. Preparation of the classroom as an effective learning environment.
3. rganization of instruction and support activities to maximize student engagement in productive tasks.
4. Development of a workable set of housekeeping procedures and conduct rules.
5. Techniques of group management during instruction.
6. Techniques of motivating and shaping desired

behaviors.
7. Techniques of conflict resolution and dealing with student adjustment problems.

"Self-Control in the Classroom." T. F. McLaughlin. Review of Educational Research, 1976, 46(4), 631-663.

The article is a review of studies relating self-control procedures to management of classroom behavior. It is divided into five sections: 1) Examination of whether self-control procedures are effective interventions for controlling already existing behavior problems. 2) Examination of self-control procedures to maintain behavior already occurring but under control of systematic reinforcement. 3) Evaluation of the effectiveness of self-control techniques as compared to other classroom intervention strategies. 4) Consideration of components of self-control such as accuracy of self-recording, delay of feedback, training procedures, magnitude and density of reinforcement, length of experience with external reinforcement, and reactivity, i. e., change in behaviors simply due to the pupils awareness of being recorded. 5) Concludes that self-control procedures have positive implications for the practitioner in the classroom." However, there are several important issues that remain unresolved including the development of detailed and easily accessible training procedures, testing its use with normal non-disruptive students, follow-up research to test the length of impact, and othe methodological concerns.

"Teacher Effectiveness in the Elementary School." Thomas Good. Journal of Teacher Education, 1979, 30(2), 52-64. (ERIC No. EJ 205 612.)

After a review of research in the area of teacher effectiveness in the elementary school, Good presents three major observations. First, there is clear evidence that elementary teachers differ in their abilities to affect student achievement. Second, classroom management skills are essential for the effective teacher. Third, effective elementary teachers tend to use direct instruction; i.e., active rather than passive teaching. Good placed special emphasis on the importance of the quality of teacher managerial skills. He notes that every study that analyzes the process of teaching to student outcomes indicates that the quality of managerial behavior of the teacher is

directly related to level of student achievement. The more adequately the teacher can structure, maintain, and monitor learning activities, the better chance the students will have of learning skills necessary for achievement. The lower the level of management, the less likely the students are to achieve those skills. Good concludes with a discussion of the value of direct instruction and its positive effect on student achievement in basic skill areas.

Toward Positive Classroom Discipline. Harvey Clarizio. New York: John Wiley, 1971.

This book offers a synthesis of research in classroom discipline with a clear slant toward the use of behavioral principles. Clarizio said that the approach combines scientific principles of learning with a genuine concern for personal and scholastic well-being of youth. The book starts with a detailed description of learning theory (behavior modification). Four phases of positive classroom discipline emerge. In phase one, the teacher chooses and clearly specifies the behavior to be changed. In phase two, the teacher attempts to identify the antecedents of the undesired behavior, the nature of the behavior itself, and the consequences or outcomes that are attached to the behavior. In phase three, the teacher selects a strategy for shaping the new, desired behavior and eliminating the undesired behavior. In phase four, the strategy is put into practice and the teacher keeps careful track of the results.

Clarizio includes discussions of how to set up rules, how to use peer influence, rewards, and contracts as well as techniques for teaching self-control. In addition, he provides chapters on the uses of modeling, imitation, and observational learning; the uses of extinction, punishment, and desensitization techniques; and a final chapter that offers positive disciplinary procedures and specific descriptions of behaviors that should be changed.

"A Case Against Behavior Modification in the 'Ordinary' Classroom." Bruce Ryan. Journal of School Psychology, 1979, 17(2), 131-35. "The Tyranny of Humanism: A Response to Ryan." Robert H. Woody. "Of Red Rags, Bulls, and Sacred Cows: A Reply to Woody." Bruce Ryan. (ERIC No. EJ 202 840.)

This citation refers to three separate articles that represent an attack on the use of behavior modification in normal classrooms, a rebuttal, and a rejoinder. Ryan contends that behavior modification is effective with severe psychological problems, but its use in ordinary classroom iss potentially troublesome. He argues that the use of powerful reinforcement contingencies might restrict the range of behaviors in which children normally engage. The use of extrinsic rewards rather than intrinsic motivation may actually decrease a child's motive to engage in a task that would normally be of interest. Behavior modification techniques may help the ineffective teacher achieve better classroom control, but mask the teacher's ineffectiveness. Finally, Ryan contends that most children seem to learn what is required by the school, and thus behavioral procedures seem unnecessary.

In his response, Woody denies each of Ryan's contentions, but fails to offer research evidence to support his rebuttal. Woody argues that behavior modification should be only one intervention strategy from among many that are used by the classroom teacher. Ryan's response again stresses the usefulness of behavioral principles in understanding a behavior, but the uselessness of the procedures on a day-to-day basis.

Changing Student Behavior: A New Approach to Discipline. Duane Brown. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Publ., 1971.

This approach to classroom discipline is based on reinforcement theory. Brown thinks that most teachers have an intuitive knowledge of principles of reinforcement theory, but they fail to apply these principles systematically. Beyond presenting the fundamentals of the theory, Brown offers nine basic principles to which a teacher who wishes to use reinforcement procedures should be alerted:

1. Reward and pinishment can be understood only in terms of the individual student.
2. The teacher is a potential reinforcing agent for

each student in the classroom.
3. A student may not behave in exactly the same way each time he or she encounters a similar situation.
4. A teacher may need to get support from other reinforcing agents in a student's life.
5. If a student is not rewarded for adaptive behavior, maladaptive behavior may be used to get reinforcement.
6. A teacher must learn to use rewards effectively and be aware of the impact of punishment.
7. A teacher must be aware of student goals and likely consequences of the behavior the teacher seeks to establish.
8. Each student is different and requires the teacher to treat him or or her differently from others. But, all children will respond to the principles.
9. Teachers can learn and master several simple techniques that should be included in the training of all teachers.

"Clarifying Teachers' Beliefs about Discipline." Carl D. Glickman and Roy T. Tamashiro. Educational Leadership, 1980, 37(6), 459- 5. (ERIC No. EJ 217 744.)

The authors developed a "Beliefs on Discipline Inventory" to help teachers clarify and classify their thoughts on discipline. Three basic classifications are related to the degree of control assumed by the teacher and student. Noninterventionists believe student misbehavior is the result of unresolved inner conflicts, but that the student has the ability to resolve the conflict. They believe that teachers should not impose their personal rules. Students are allowed high control and teachers low control. Interactionists believe that students learn to behave as a result of encountering the outside world of objects and people. Rules for behavior come from the realities of living with others. Teachers and students share equal control. Interventionists believe that student misbehavior is the result of inadequate or inappropriate application of rewards and punishment. The teacher has high control, the student low control.

The inventory contains prediction items, forced choice items, and a scale for self-scoring and interpretation. The purpose is to help teachers clarify their discipline beliefs and strategies, to show inconsistencies in beliefs and actions, or to compare the teachers' self-perception with the perceptions that others hold of them.

Classroom Discipline: Case Studies and Viewpoints. Sylvester Kohut, Jr. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1979.

The author tries to link educational theory and practice. Using actual classroom situations, he attempts to offer guidelines regarding organization, planning, and instructional activities. Classroom management is defined in broad all-encompassing terms, while discipline is defined more narrowly to reflect self-respect and respect of the rights and needs of others. The author provides a stereotypical profile of rural, suburban, and urban youths, and discusses the pros and cons of corporal punishment.

"Classroom Management." Wilford A. Weber. In James M. Cooper (ed.) Classroom Teaching Skills: A Handbook, pp. 284-348. Lexington, Mass: D. C. Heath, 1977.

Weber emphasizes the need for teachers to use alternative strategies in classroom management. At a minimum teachers should possess skills in behavior modification, development of positive socioemotional climates, and group processes. He excludes strategies that depend on authoritarian control, permissiveness, and dependence on "Bags of tricks." Weber provides an overview of classroom management and typical problems that teachers face, and suggests teacher responses on the basis of three approaches he advocates.

"Classroom Management and Teacher Decision Making." Walter Doyle. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Eductional Research Association, 8-12 April 1979, San Francisco. 1979.

Classroom management is interpreted as cooperation between student and teacher, which the teacher, is expected to gain and maintain. To accomplish positive classroom management the teacher must first be able to establish a system of classroom rules, and then select activities that have a high probability of eliciting cooperation from a large number of students. Finally, the teacher must monitor events and adjust the flow of activities during instruction. Doyle finds that most students are willing to accept teacher authority if the teacher (a) is willing to act immediately and decisively when a situation calls for action, (b) is

able to anticipate possible problems and recognize misbehavior early, and (c) communicates this information to the students. Students appear to resent the exercise of authority by teachers who lack classroom skills.

"Classroom Management in the Elementary Grades." Jere E. Brophy and Joyce G. Putnam. In Daniel L. Duke (ed.), Classroom Management: 78th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Ch. 6, pp. 182-216. Chicago: University of ChicagoPress, 1979.

The authors attempt to synthesize points of agreement in classroom management and build a systematic presention related to theoretical ideas. Their focus is on preventative classroom management, the personal characteristics of the teacher, and the setting of the traditional, self-contained classroom. Their discussion of the developmental aspects of classroom management parallels their differentiation of stages of student development. Stage 1: During kindergarten and the early elementary grades the student is socialized into the student role. Teachers train students in those behaviors that are traditionally expected among students. Stage 2: During the early and middle elementary grades, the student internalizes the student role. Classroom management is still adult oriented and focused on external motivators for completing the tasks. Stage 3: During the later elementary grades and during junior high or middle school, the student loses his or her orientation and is motivated toward having a good time and pleasing peers. Classroom management becomes more difficult and more complicated. Stage 4: By late high school, the most alienated students have likely dropped out of school and the remaining students are more likely to be internally motivated. The focus again is centered on academic tasks, but less adult control is required.

Those teacher attributes that the authors see as facilitating effective classroom management include remaining calm in a crisis, listening actively without becoming defensive or authoritarian, avoiding win-lose conflicts, and maintaining a problem-solving orientation. Effective management is aided by adequate planning and preparation for instruction, an effective monitoring system, and other techniques adapted from Kounin such as withitness and overlapping.

"Conceptualizing Classroom Management." Mauritz Johnson and Harry Brooks. In Daniel L. Duke (ed.), Classroom Management: 78th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, Ch. 1, pp. 1-42. Chicago: University Press, of Chicago, 1979.

The authors explore classroom management from the view that it is "an organizational function in which certain tasks are performed in a variety of settings in behalf of certain values." They identify three competing general ideologies of management as task oriented, group oriented and individual oriented. After reviewing other models of management, they offer their model, which includes the following: (a) Classroom management is an organizational funcion that requires teachers to perform various tasks, (b) involving the manipulation of certain variable elements, (c)in a variety settings, (d) to further certain values, (e) through the resolution of a number of tensions, (f) that differ in nature and seriousness according to situational factors, (g) in ways influenced by the school's and the teacher's ideological stances.

"Control, Conflict, and Collaboration in the Classroom." Dean Tjosvold. Education Digest, 1980, 45(8), 17-20.

Tjosvold concludes that control-orientation is a major outcome of professional socialization and that it leads to student resentment, increases in conflict, and in teachers undervaluing their students. He proposes instead a collaborative orientation in which teachers depend on indirect influence of student behavior. Students in a collaborative environment were found to have more positive feelings toward the school and toward themselves. Tjosvold suggests that developing skills in two-way communication, group decision-making, group problem solving, and constructive conflict-resolution are fundamental to a collaborative orientation.

"Controlling Student Behavior Problems--What are the Alternatives?" Daniel L. Duke., Palo Alto, Calif: Stanford University, 1979. (ERIC No. ED 173 714.)

Using decision theory as an organizational perspective, Duke outlines control strategies for dealing with student behavior problems. The six strategies are schoolwide rather than focused on the individual classroom. They are problem avoidance, problem acceptance, problem compensation, problem intervention, and problem management. The likelihood of selecting an effective control procedure is increased with the number of available alternatives. Duke also suggests that the school structure itself may need to be altered before there is a significant drop in student behavior problems. His paper ends with field observations of the implementation of the strategies in a set of elementary, junior high, and senior high schools.

"A Critical Examination of Discipline Theories and Practice." Susan Sussman. Toronto, Ontario, Canada: York Borough Board of education, June 1976. (ERIC No. ED 128 955).

The author begins her summary by noting the lack of empirical studies to document the theories. Her paper is a summary of theories, including behavior modification, group dynamics, Glasser's reality therapy, Driekur's logical consequences approach (derived from Adlerian theory), Kohlberg's stages of moral development and learning theory. Sussman also looks at teacher attributes and classroom learning.

"Disciplinary Roles in American Schools." Daniel L. Duke and Adrienne M. Meckel. British Journal of Teacher Education, 1980, 6(1), 37-50. (ERIC No. EJ 231 167.)

The authors analyze the impact of multiple and ambiguous role expectations on the abilities of teachers and administrators to handle disruptive or undesired behaviors. As the number of expected roles increases, the risk of conflicting or incompatible role expectations also increases. Likewise, as the number of roles increases, the chances of ill-defined, ambiguous role expectations also increases. These ambiguities and conflicts lead to inconsistencies in teacher and administrator behavior with student misbehavior, which in turn lead to lowered morale among teachers and students. Students lose respect for schools when the schools are seen as incapable of adequately governing themselves.

"Discipline and the High School Teacher." George Thompson. Clearing House, 1976, 49 (May), 408-13. (ERIC No. EJ 149 296.)

Thompson develops a theory of discipline from his class experiences and those of the student teachers with whom he has worked. His theory is based on the following premises: (a)All behavior is caused and purposive. (b) Discipline problems may be real or just perceived. A real discipline problem occurs when a student infringes on real freedoms of the teacher or of other students. (c) A teacher's threshold of tolerance is important. (d) Sometimes the intervention causes disruption. The teacher must weigh the disruptive element of the correction against the disruptive element of the problem behavior. (e) Discipline is either remedial or preventive. Preventive discipline establishes a positive learning environment that allows the students as much freedom as they can handle.

Thompson notes that the teacher is the instructional leader and must monitor student activity and progress. The teacher can be neither an analyst nor a tyrant. Teachers should be aware that some adolescent misbehavior results from the adolescent attempting to establish adult independence. Some rebellious behavior may result from the school being too restictive and institutional. Thompson stresses that the goal of discipline should go beyond maintaining an efficient learning environment to teaching students self-discipline.

Discipline in the Junior High/Middle School: A Handbook for Teachers, Counselors, and Administrators. William E. Stradley and Richard D. Aspinall. New York: Center for Applied Education, 1975.

This a handbook of discipline approaches may be used with specific problems. The authors stress the middle-school teacher must be flexible and that middle-school students experience special problems. Discipline is defined from a positive point of view and functions similarly to learning in general. Effective discipline emerges from a well-conceived program of discipline that acknowledges the roles of the student, the teacher, the school, the home, and the community. Chapters address topics such as matching staff abilities to student needs, preventive discipline, improving student's self-image, peers, student-teacher conflict, attendance problems, and vandalism.

"Disruptive Behavior in the Classroom." Fritz Redl. School Review, 1975, 83(4), 569-94. (ERIC No. EJ 127 033.)

Redl discusses disruptive behavior as a normal part of classroom life. He classifies student disruptive behavior as emerging from a problem that is individual to the student, from something the classroom or school setting has done to the student, or as a problem of the larger group being acted out by one member. Redl tries to make clear the difference between the causes of disruptive behavior and their symbolic meanings. Disruptions may actually be ways that students tell the teacher they are bored, do not understand what the teacher is discussng, want to test what the limits are, or misunderstand what adults see as desirable. Redl notes that understanding the meaning of disruptive behavior may be of great help to the teacher in deciding what action is needed, since the causes of the misbehavior can seldom be precisely pinned down.

The Disruptive Student and the Teacher. L. Wendell Rivers. Washington, D. C:,. National Education Association and the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, 1977. (ERIC No. ed 144 931.)

Rivers presumes that students who are disruptive are in distress because of pressures from school, home, or both,

and they have problems communicating the nature of their distress. Rivers offers specific suggestions to help a teacher deal with the behaviors described in two vignettes, one involving a specific disruptive student and the other an emotionally disruptive student. He also makes suggestions to help teachers develop a classroom environment that avoids such problems and to help teachers "keep their cool" when faced with a disruptive student. His suggestions come from interviews with experienced teachers.

Maintaining Productive Student Beheavior. Kevin Swick. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1977.

Swick points out that success or failure of teachers and other school officials often is judged in terms of ability to maintain effective pupil control. After summarizing some of the literature and research, he lists some causes and effects of disruptive behavior, and possible solutions to minimize such behavior. He suggests that teachers who wish to improve student behavior must (a)define the situation, (b) gather data on student behavior patterns, (c) specify where the behavior occurs, (d) consult both citizens and professional staff for ideas of the causes, effects, and solutions to misbehavior, and (e) implement a systematic plan for improving the situation. Swick provides a Disruptive Behavior Inventory to aid in using his model, and discusses how his model has been used in school districts.

"Making Managerial Decisions in Classrooms." Walter Doyle. In Daniel L. Duke (ed.), Classroom Management: 78th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Ch. 2, pp. 42-74. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1979.

On the basis of long-term classroom observation, Doyle makes a case for the importance of the information-processing dimensions of classroom management. He discusses classroom demands and information-processing responses that make it possible for the teacher to solve problems posed by the classroom environment. His basic premise is that teachers view their primary task as gaining and maintaining cooperation in classroom activities and not in maximizing learning outcomes for individual students. This orientation is reflected in actual in-class teacher behavior. Doyle contends that the orientation is a

legitimate focus, because without cooperation, no learning at all would occur in the classroom. He views violations of class rules as part of the students' efforts to understand the complex classroom environment and to make it predictable. As evidence, he notes that at beginning of the year the number of such behaviors is high, but eventually an equilibrium sets in as a result of the teacher's management skills. Doyle discusses the relevance of monitoring, timing, routines, and the use of classroom schema maps to aid in effective classroom management. He believes that the key to effective classroom management is knowing when to decide, and when to use conscious monitoring processes. He stresses that it is an error to consider classroom management a crisis intervention problem or a task to be accomplished; classroom management is an on-going process. He concludes, "Classroom management defines what it means to be a teacher."

Modifying Classroom Behavior (Revised). Nancy Buckley and Hill Walker. Champaign, Ill.: Research Press, 1978.

In a semi-programmed format, the authors present behavior modification techniques for classroom management. The first part of the book presents basic principals of behavior modification, including how behaviors are learned, maintained, measured, and eliminated. The second part applies these principles to classroom behaviors. The following guidelines are provided:

1. Develop individual behavioral and academic goals for each student in the classroom.
2. Decide how often a given behavior is currently occurring.
3. Set daily steps.
4. Involve the child.
5. Decide on the environmental change.
6. Record the behavior.
7. Alter the program as needed.

The Onion Sandwich Principle and Other Essays on Classroom Management. Judith Beal. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1973.

The author humorously explores the theme of classroom management from the perspective of humanistic behaviorism. Her position is that learning theory (behavior modification) is most useful in the classroom when it is combined with the

goals of aiding the students in developing skills of managing their own behavior and setting their own goals for personal growth and learning. She discusses such topics as the "Onion sandwich principle" (rewards must be individually meaningful), individualized instruction, intrinsically rewarding activities, and applying all of these in a group setting, such as a classroom. Her emphasis is on viewing the learner as an active participant in his or her education rather than a passive subject. Beal strives to overcome the "manipulative" image of traditional behavioral techniques. Included are suggestions for implementing a humanistic-behavioristic program and a list of observations why such a program may not work for all teachers.

"Principles of Classroom Discipline: Toward a Pragmatic Synthesis." Thomas R. McDaniel. Clearing House, 1977, 51(4), 149-52. (ERIC No. EJ 176 896.)

The basic premise of this author is that for classroom discipline to be effective there must be mutual respect between teachers and students. To attain the respect of their students, teachers must (a) know their subject, (b) approach their classes with a serious purpose, (c) conduct the class in an efficient and businesslike manner, (d) plan lessons thoroughly, (e) set reasonable, clearly understood, fairly administered standards of performance and behavior for the class, and (f) have respect for themselves as teachers and for their role. Drawing on the writings of Ginott and Dreikurs, McDaniel offers the following guidelines:

1. Deal with the positive aspects of behavior. Tell students what they should do rather than what they should not do.
2. If the limits you have established are crossed, do not evaluate. Rather, describe the situation to the student(s. and offer an alternative that is within your control.
3) Whenever possible, allow the natural, logical, consequences to follow the act of violating a rule.

"Problems of Student Behavior in Secondary Schools." John D. Feldhusen. In Daniel L. Duke (ed.), Classroom Management: 78th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Ch. 7, pp. 217-44. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1979.

Feldhusen traces the problem of deviant behavior in junior and senior high schools, looks at the causes of such behavior from several perspectives, and reviews the more prominent programs for prevention and remediation of such behaviors. Using Kounin's research as a base, he reviews the importance of teacher characteristics of clarity, firmness, and roughness. Feldhusen also describes the value of developing self-control and the use of peer reinforcement to alter behavior.

Psychology of Discipline in the Classroom. William J. Gnagey. New York: Macmillan, 1968.

Gnagey addresses the issue of what constitutes "deviant" behavior and how it often depends on the person who is defining "deviant." He relies heavily on the work of Kounin and borrows from the principles of Neil Miller's social learning theory. Gnagey summarizes what a reader should gain from his book: (a) considerations that designate some behavior as misbehavior, (b) forces that cause some students to become deviants, (c) some teacher behaviors that increase the probability of a student's becoming deviant, (d) a number of "antiseptic" (get the job done without a lot of destructive effects) control techniques suitable for classroom use, and (e) ways that the ripple effects may be used to increase the teacher's control of misbehavior.

"Strategies in Classroom Management." Robert L. Shirley. Education Digest, 1979, 45(4), 7-10.

The author develops six guidelines for coping with classroom behavior: (a) Deliberately designed coping skills are necessary. Basic coping skills include ignoring behavior, giving nonverbal cues, maintaining proximity to the behavior, and touching. (b) Expertise in teaching tends to prevent disruption, and central to expert teaching skills is the ability to make professional decisions confidently and rationally. (c) Irritating, but normal, behavior must be tolerated. (d) Teachers must rely on preventive rather than coercive control techniques. (5) Punishment should be used judiciously. (f) Teachers cannot solve all societal problems.

"A Systematic Management Plan for School Discipline." Daniel L. Duke. NASSP Bulletin, January 1977, 61(405), 1-10. (ERIC No. EJ 158 808.)

The author provides a systematic plan for schoolwide responsiveness to discipline problems as follows.

1. One must collect accurate data on discipline problems including nature and frequency. This information should be shared with those who are concerned about the problem including those in the community.
2. Students, parents, and school personnel need to heighten their awareness of the school rules, and collaboratively evaluate the rules and determine consequences for violating them. The rules and consequences should be widely publicized and become part of the academic curriculum.
3. Reward students who obey the rules.
4. Set up mechanisms to resolve conflicts. Conflict resolution should include a definition of what occurred, ways to correct the problem, and agreement to try one solution.
5. Use a team approach to managing misbehavior. The team must involve parents.
6. Provide inservice training in effective classroom management skills for teachers.

"Task and Authority: A Sociological View of Classroom Management." Elizabeth G. Cohen, Jo Ann K. Intili and Susan Hurevitz Robbins. In Daniel L. Duke (ed.), Classroom Management: 78th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Ch. 4, pp. 116-43. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1979.

The authors propose that order is closely related to classroom management and when instruction becomes complex, teachers need more than one strategy for maintaining order. Classroom management is not viewed as controlling behavior, but as a function of task complexity. Four aspects of classroom management are: (a) insuring that tasks are appropriate for learners, (b) providing feedback to the learners, (c) maintaining a system of records that provide easy access to information needed for making managerial decisions, and (d) evaluating the overall effectiveness of the system. The authors stress that teacher-student communication is necessary in solving problems of management and coordination. Classroom management involves ensuring

student commitment to the tasks and to learning itself.

Teaching/Discipline. Charles H. Madsen, Jr. and Clifford K. Madsen. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1970.

The authors define discipline as a "process whereby certain relationships are established." Effective discipline in their view is little more than controlling cause and effect relationships, and, as with everything else, discipline must be learned. Rather than trying to analyze causes and motives for behavior, which are largely out of the domain of the teacher, the Madsens advise dealing with the behavior itself. The principal question that the teacher must address is what "payoff" is the student now receiving for misbehavior, how may that payoff be removed, and what payoff will lead to the desired behavior. Four basic principles of behavior modification are stressed: (a) Pinpoint precisely the behavior to be established or eliminated. (b) Keep a precise record of the occurrence of the specific behavior in time sequences. (c) Set up the external environmental contingencies. (d) Evaluate the results. The second part of the book provides case studies of specific behaviors and the processes that a teacher would use to alter them. Behaviorism, in this work, is tempered with a humanistic approach.

"Ten Steps to Good Discipline." William Glasser. Education Digest, 1978, 43(6), 1-5. (ERIC No. EJ 180 336.)

Glasser offers guidelines for effective discipline based on concepts of reality therapy. He stresses that schools should be "good places to be" before his techniques will work. In one set of schools using his 10 steps, office referrals, fighting, and the number of suspensions were all reduced. The 10 steps increase in severity of action required, and move from an analysis of teacher reaction to a specific behavior, to short conferences with the student, to isolation of the student, to notification of the parents and suspension from school. Glasser stresses the importance of planning and encourages the staff to help students plan specific positive actions.

Summary

The division of this bibliography in Conceptual, Organizational Studies, Research Studies, and Summaries of Research was made to facilitate reader usability. Summaries of research are often useful in giving the reader a starting point for entering into the field, but it is the research itself which puts ideas about classroom management to the test. This review has served to confirm the authors' contention that research that lacks a solid theoretical base offers little to advance knowledge about teaching.

For this reason there is an inherent bias in the selection of items for this bibliography. As the introduction states, there exists a large amount of literature that is not included in this monograph. A exhaustive bibliography would require a monumental effort. Four criteria for inclusion in this bibliography were thus used. (a) The setting for the analysis was the normal classroom. (b) Primary research studies were given preference. (c) The information gathered from the study was thought to be useful to the classroom teacher and to teacher trainers. (d) With the exception of a limited number of exceptionally important articals, selection was limited to those published after 1970.

By concentrating on recent research, there was an emphasis on research building on Jacob Kounin's work and

research which focuses on time-on-task as an important student variable. This reflects both the dominant theme in current research and the authors' biases.

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